

Probability Theory

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April 2021-June 2021

1 Introduction

This summaries has been made primly by used the lecture notes [1] with the help of [2] and some websites.

1.1 Element of Set Theory

1. **Cardinality:** numbers of elements of a finite set (its often denoted by $\#(A)$).
2. Given subsets A_1, A_2, \dots of M their **union** $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j$ and their **intersection** $\bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j$ is the set of those $x \in M$ that belong to a least one of the A_j or that belong to all A_j , respectively

3. **Distributive Law:**

$$A \cap \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} B_j \right) = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (A \cap B_j)$$

4. Two sets A and B are said to be **disjoint** provided that $A \cap B = \emptyset$.
5. A sequence of sets A_1, A_2, \dots is called **pairwise disjoint** whenever $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$
6. The **complementary set** of $B \subseteq M$ is $B^c := \{x \in M : x \notin B\}$
7. Let $A, B \subseteq M$, then the **difference** $A \setminus B$ is defined by $\{w \in M : w \in A \text{ and } w \notin B\}$ or, similarly $A \setminus B = A \cap B^c$
8. **De Morgan's rules**

$$\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \right)^c = \bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j^c \quad \left(\bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \right)^c = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j^c$$

1.2 Combinatorics

1.2.1 The rules of sum and product

The Rule of Sum and Rule of Product are used to decompose difficult counting problems into simple problems.

- **Rule of Sum:** If a sequence of tasks T_1, T_2, \dots, T_m can be done in w_1, \dots, w_m ways respectively (no tasks can be performed simultaneously), then the number of ways to do one of these task is $\sum_{j \geq 1} w_j$, i.e if we consider two task A and B which are disjoint, then $\#(A \cup B) = \#(A) + \#(B)$

- **Rule of Product:** If we have set of events A_1, A_2, \dots where A_1 occur before A_2 , A_2 occur before A_3 , and so on, then $\# \left(\prod_{j \geq 1} A_j \right) = \prod_{j \geq 1} \#(A_j)$

1.2.2 Permutations

A **permutation** is an arrangement of some elements in which order matters. In other words a Permutation is an ordered Combination of elements.

1. Let S_n be the set of all permutations of order n . Then how many ways I can rearrange the numbers $\{1, \dots, n\}$?

$$\#(S_n) = n!$$

or, equivalently, there are $n!$ different ways to order n distinguishable objects

2. How many ways are there to pick a sequence of k (not necessarily distinct) numbers chosen from $1, \dots, n$?

$$n^k$$

3. How many ways are there to pick a sequence of k distinct numbers chosen from $1, \dots, n$? in this case makes sense if $k \leq n$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

4. How many ways can you distribute n objects into one group of k and into another of $n - k$ elements? or How many subsets of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ of cardinality exactly k are there?

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

This is called **the binomial coefficients**, read " n chosen k "

5. How many ways are there to draw k balls out of $1, \dots, n$ with replacement but without order?

$$\binom{n+k-1}{k}$$

6. How many ways you can distribute n elements into m groups of sizes k_1, k_2, \dots, k_m where $k_1 + \dots + k_m = n$?

$$\binom{n}{k_1, \dots, k_m} := \frac{n!}{k_1! \dots k_m!}, \quad k_1 + \dots + k_m = n$$

This is called **multinomial coefficient**, read " n chosen k_1 up to k_m "

7. **Pascal's triangle**

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$

1.2.3 Inclusion-Exclusion principle

The Inclusion-exclusion principle computes the cardinal number of the union of multiple non-disjoint sets. For two sets A and B , the principle states

$$\#(A \cup B) = \#(A) + \#(B) - \#(A \cap B)$$

the generalized formula

$$\# \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right) = \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq n} \#(A_i \cap A_j) + \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq n} \#(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) - \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \#(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n)$$

2 Probability Spaces

The basic concern of Probability Theory is to model experiments involving randomness, that is, experiments with nondetermined outcomes, shortly called random experiments.

Definition 2.1 *Random experiments are described by probability spaces $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$*

Definition 2.2 *The **sample space** Ω is a nonempty set that contains (at least) all possible outcomes of the random experiment.*

Remark: Due to mathematical reasons sometimes it can be useful to choose K larger than necessary. It is only important that the sample space contains all possible results.

Definition 2.3 *Any element $w \in \Omega$ is called an **outcome**. Any subset $A \subseteq \Omega$ is called **event***

Definition 2.4 *A **Probability space** is a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$, where Ω is a sample space, \mathcal{A} is*

$$\mathcal{A} = \begin{cases} \text{set of all subsets of } \Omega & \text{if } \Omega \text{ is countable} \\ \text{a certain set of subsets of } \Omega & \text{if } \Omega \text{ is uncountable} \end{cases}$$

and $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability measure (probability function)

Definition 2.5 *Let Ω be a sample space and let \mathcal{A} be as in definition 2.4. A function $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is called **probability measure** on (Ω, \mathcal{A}) if*

1. $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$ and $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$
2. if A_1, A_2, \dots are pairwise disjoint, then

$$\mathbb{P} \left(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} A_i \right) = \sum_{i \geq 1} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

*This are called **Kolmogorov's axioms of probability**. (2) is often called sigma-additivity.*

Theorem 2.6 *First properties of probabilities*

- $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$
- if $A, B \in \Omega$ satisfy $A \subseteq B$, then $\mathbb{P}(B \setminus A) = \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A)$
- $\mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A)$ for any $A \in \Omega$
- $\mathbb{P}(A) \leq 1$ for any A
- $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$ (*Inclusion-Exclusion principle*)
- Probability measures are **monotone**, that is, if $A \subseteq B$ then $\mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B)$

Theorem 2.7 Sigma sub-additivity For any A_1, A_2, \dots , not necessarily disjoint

$$\mathbb{P} \left(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} A_i \right) \leq \sum_{i \geq 1} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

Theorem 2.8 Inclusion-exclusion formula Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space and let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be some (not necessarily disjoint) events, then

$$\mathbb{P} \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^n A_j \right) = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_k \leq n} \mathbb{P}(A_{j_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{j_k})$$

Theorem 2.9 Suppose $\Omega = \{w_1, w_2, \dots\}$ and p_1, p_2, \dots are non negative numbers with $\sum p_i = 1$. Defining, for all $A \in \Omega$,

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i: w_i \in A} p_i$$

Then \mathbb{P} is a probability measure.

Theorem 2.10 If $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space, Ω is finite and the outcomes $w \in \Omega$ all have the same probability, then, for any $A \in \mathcal{A}$,

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{\#(A)}{\#(\Omega)}$$

3 Conditional probability and independence

Definition 3.1 Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space and A, B events; assume $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$. Then the probability of A given B is defined by

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$$

Definition 3.2 The mapping $\mathbb{P}(\cdot|B)$ is called **conditional probability** or also **conditional distribution** (under condition B)

Remark: The main advantage of this definition is that it implies that conditional probabilities share all the properties of ordinary probability measures.

Theorem 3.3 Law of total probability Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space and let B_1, \dots, B_n in \mathcal{A} be disjoint with $\mathbb{P}(B_j) > 0$ and $\bigcup_{j=1}^n B_j = \Omega$. Then for each $A \in \mathcal{A}$ holds

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{P}(B_j) \mathbb{P}(A|B_j)$$

Theorem 3.4 Bayes' formula Suppose we are given disjoint events B_1 to B_n satisfying $\bigcup_{j=1}^n B_j = \Omega$ and $\mathbb{P}(B_j) > 0$. Let A be an event with $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$. Then for each $j \leq n$ the following equation holds:

$$\mathbb{P}(B_j|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B_j) \mathbb{P}(A|B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(B_i) \mathbb{P}(A|B_i)}$$

Remark: in case $\mathbb{P}(A)$ is already known, Bayes's formula simplifies to

$$\mathbb{P}(B_j|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B_j) \mathbb{P}(A|B_j)}{\mathbb{P}(A)}, \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$

Definition 3.5 Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space. Two events A and B in \mathcal{A} are said to be **independent** provided that

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B)$$

In the case that this eq. does not hold, the events A and B are said **dependent**

Definition 3.6 Events A_1, \dots, A_n are said to be **pairwise independent** if, whenever $i \neq j$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j) = \mathbb{P}(A_i) \mathbb{P}(A_j)$$

In other words, for all $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ the events A_i and A_j are independent

Definition 3.7 The events A_1, \dots, A_n are said to be **mutually independent** provided that for each subset of $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i\right) = \prod_{i \in I} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

Remark: If A_1, \dots, A_n are mutually independent then they are also pairwise independent. However, in general the converse does not hold.

4 Random Variables

There are two ways to model a random experiment. The classical approach is to construct a probability space that describes this experiment. Another way is to choose a random variable X so that the probability of the occurrence of an event $B \in \mathcal{B}$ equals $\mathbb{P}(X \in B)$.

Definition 4.1 Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space. A mapping $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a (real-valued) **random variable**

Remark: $w \in \Omega$ such that $X(w) = x$ is an event.

4.1 Probability Distribution of a Random Variable

Suppose we are given a random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We define now a mapping \mathbb{P}_X from \mathcal{A} to $[0, 1]$ as follows:

$$\mathbb{P}_X(B) := \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B)) = \mathbb{P}(\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in B) = \mathbb{P}(X \in B)$$

Definition 4.2 Two random variables X_1 and X_2 are said to be **identically distributed** provided that $\mathbb{P}_{X_1} = \mathbb{P}_{X_2}$. Hereby, it is not necessary that X_1 and X_2 are defined on the same sample space. Only their distributions have to coincide.

Definition 4.3 Let X be a random variable, either discrete or continuous. Then its **cumulative distribution function** $F_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is defined by

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$$

Theorem 4.4 The distribution function F_X of the random variable X satisfies:

1. $F_X(-\infty) = 0$ and $F_X(\infty) = 1$
2. F_X is nondecreasing
3. F_X is continuous from the right

Lemma 4.5 $\mathbb{P}(X = x) = F_X(x) - \lim_{y \nearrow x} F_X(y)$.

4.1.1 Discrete Random Variable

Definition 4.6 A random variable X is **discrete** provided there exists an at most countably infinite set $D \subset \mathbb{R}$ such that $X : \Omega \rightarrow D$.

In other words, a random variable is discrete if it attains at most countably infinite many different values.

Remark: If a random variable X is discrete with values in $D \subset \mathbb{R}$, then $\mathbb{P}_X(D) = \mathbb{P}(X \in D) = 1$.

Without losing generality we may always assume the following: if a random variable X has a discrete probability distribution, that is, $\mathbb{P}(X \in D) = 1$ for some finite or countably infinite set D , then X attains values in D .

Definition 4.7 Let X be a discrete random variable, then the **probability mass function** of X is defined as follows

$$f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x) \quad \text{for all } x$$

Remark: Note that if X is discrete, then

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = \sum_{y \leq x} \mathbb{P}(X = y) = \sum_{y \leq x} f_X(y)$$

4.1.2 Continuous random variables

Definition 4.8 A random variable X is said to be **continuous** provided that its distribution \mathbb{P}_X is a continuous probability measure. That is, \mathbb{P}_X possesses a **probability density function**, or *pdf*. Or a X is continuous if its cumulative distribution function $F_X(x)$ is continuous, i.e $\mathbb{P}(X = x) = 0$.

Definition 4.9 A pdf function of a continuous random variable X is a function $f_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ that satisfies

$$\mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(y) dy \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Remark: for all real numbers $a < b$

$$\mathbb{P}(a \leq X \leq b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a) = \int_a^b f_X(y) dy$$

Remark: If X is continuous the following are equal

$$\mathbb{P}(a \leq X \leq b) = \mathbb{P}(a < X \leq b) = \mathbb{P}(a \leq X < b) = \mathbb{P}(a < X < b)$$

and $\mathbb{P}(-\infty < X < \infty) = 1$

4.2 Function of random variable

Let $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let Y, X be random variables. Let $Y = g(X)$, then

Definition 4.10 cdf

$$F_Y(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) = \mathbb{P}(g(X) \leq y) = \mathbb{P}(X \in g^{-1}((-\infty, y]))$$

Remark: if X discrete, then $F_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in g^{-1}(y)} f_X(x)$. Instead if its continuous the integral.

Theorem 4.11

1. If $Y = g(X)$ and g is strictly increasing, then $F_Y(y) = F_X(g^{-1}(y))$
2. If g is strictly decreasing and X is continuous, then $F_Y(y) = 1 - F_X(g^{-1}(y))$

Definition 4.12 pmf

$$f_Y(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(g(X) = y) = \mathbb{P}(X \in g^{-1}(y)) = \sum_{x \in g^{-1}(y)} f_X(x)$$

Definition 4.13 pdf Assume X has pdf f_X and $Y = g(X)$ with g differentiable and strictly increasing or decreasing. Then

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \cdot \left| \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right|$$

5 Expected Value and Variance

5.1 Expected Value

Definition 5.1 *Expectation* The expectation (or expected value or mean) of a random variable X is

$$\mathbb{E}[x] = \begin{cases} \sum_x x \cdot f_X(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_X(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ has pdf } f_X \end{cases}$$

provided that the sum or integral exists.

Remark: Since $x_i \mathbb{P}(X = x_i) \geq 0$ and $x f_X(x) \geq 0$ (for continuous) for non-negative X , for those random variables the sum and the integral is always well-defined, but may be infinite.

Theorem 5.2 For $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a random variable X ,

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \begin{cases} \sum_x g(x) \cdot f_X(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot f_X(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ has pdf } f_X \end{cases}$$

provided that the sum or integral exists.

Theorem 5.3 if X is a random variable, $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $g_1, g_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbb{E}(g_1(X)), \mathbb{E}(g_2(X))$ exist, then,

1. $\mathbb{E}(ag_1(X) + bg_2(X) + c) = a\mathbb{E}(g_1(X)) + b\mathbb{E}(g_2(X)) + c$
2. If $g_1 \geq 0$, then $\mathbb{E}(g_1(X)) \geq 0$
3. If $g_1 \geq g_2$, then $\mathbb{E}(g_1(X)) \geq \mathbb{E}(g_2(X))$
4. If $a \leq g_1(X) \leq b$, then $a \leq \mathbb{E}(g_1(X)) \leq b$

Theorem 5.4 \mathbb{E} through cdf

1. If X is a discrete random variable that only assumes values on $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{n \geq 0} (1 - F_X(n))$$

2. If X is a continuous and non-negative random variable, then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^{\infty} 1 - F_X(x) dx$$

5.2 Variance

Definition 5.5 For a random variable X and an integer n , we define the variance of X :

$$\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2].$$

where $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$.

The positive square root of $\text{Var}(X)$ is called the standard deviation of X .

Remark: $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mu^2$

Interpretation: The expected value μ of a random variable is its main characteristic. It tells us around which value the observations of X have to be expected. But it does not tell us how far away from μ these observations will be on average. Are they concentrated around μ or are they widely dispersed? This behavior is described by the variance. It is defined as the average quadratic distance of X to its mean value. If $\text{Var}(X)$ is small, then we will observe realizations of X quite near to its mean. Otherwise it is likely to observe values of X far away from its expected value.

Theorem 5.6 *If X is a random variable and a, b are constants,*

$$\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

6 Discrete distributions

6.1 Discrete uniform distribution

Let a, b integers, $a < b$. A random variable X follows a discrete uniform distribution with parameters a and b (abbreviated: $X \sim \text{Unif}(a, b)$) if

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{b - a + 1}, \quad x = a, a + 1, \dots, b$$

(in words: X is equally likely to be equal to any of the integer between (and including) a and b).

1. Expectation: $\mathbb{E}(X) = \frac{a+b}{2}$
2. Variance $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{(b-a+1)^2-1}{12}$

6.2 Bernoulli distribution

Let $p \in [0, 1]$. X follows a Bernoulli distribution with parameter p , that is, $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ if

$$f_X(1) = p; \quad f_X(0) = 1 - p$$

1. $\mathbb{E}(X) = 0 \cdot (1 - p) + 1 \cdot p = p$
2. $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mu^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p)$

Remark: A Bernoulli trial is an experiment which results in success with probability p and failure with $1 - p$. X is then 1 when there is success and 0 when there is failure.

6.3 Binomial distribution

The sample space is $\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ for some $n \geq 1$ and p is a real number with $0 \leq p \leq 1$

Definition 6.1 *The probability measure $\text{Bin}(n, p)$ defined by*

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = f_X(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}, \quad x = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

where f_X is the pmf of X , is called **binomial distribution** with parameters n and p

Remark: if $A \subseteq \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$, then

$$\text{Bin}_{n,p}(A) = \sum_{k \in A} \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

1. **Expectation:** $\mathbb{E}(X) = np$
2. **Variance:** $\text{Var}(X) = np(1-p)$

Remark: The binomial distribution describes the following experiment. We execute n times independently the same experiment where each time either success or failure may appear. The success probability is p . Then $\text{Bin}(n, p)$ of $X = x$ is the probability to observe exactly x times success or, equivalently, $n - x$ times failure.

Theorem 6.2 Binomial theorem

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{0 \leq k \leq n} \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$

6.4 Geometric distribution

Suppose we perform Bernoulli trials with probability p of success until the first success is obtain. Let X be the numbers of trials needed for observe success for the first time. Then, for $x \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$,

$$f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x) = (1-p)^{x-1} p$$

we say that X follows a geometric distribution with parameter p , $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$

1. **Expectation:** $\mathbb{E}(X) = \frac{1}{p}$
2. **Variance:** $\text{Var}(X) = (1-p)/p^2$

6.5 Poisson distribution

Let $\lambda > 0$. A random variable X follows the Poisson distribution with parameter λ , $X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)$ if

$$f_X(k) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

Remark: note that $\sum_{x \geq 0} f_X(k) = 1$

1. **Expectation:** $\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{k \geq 0} k \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} = \lambda$
2. **Variance:** $\text{Var}(X) = \lambda$

Poisson approximation to Binomial: this is an approximation which can be summarized by: $\text{Bin}(n, p)$ is close to $\text{Poi}(\lambda)$ when n is large, p is small and np is close to λ .

Proposition 6.3 Assume $(p_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence such that

$$p_n \in [0, 1] \quad \text{for each } n \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} np_n = \lambda > 0.$$

Then, for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\underbrace{\binom{n}{k} p_n^k (1-p_n)^{n-k}}_{f_X(k) \text{ for } X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p_n)} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}}_{f_X \text{ for } X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)}$$

Remark: The Poisson distribution describes experiments where the number of trials is big, but the single success probability is small.

7 Continuous distributions

7.1 Uniform distribution

$a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$. A random variable X follows a continuous uniform distribution between a and b if it has pdf

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \quad \text{if } x \in (a, b)$$

and it is called **uniform random variable**.

1. **Expectation:** $\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_a^b x \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{b+a}{2}$
2. **Variance:** $\text{Var}(X) = \int_a^b (x - \frac{b+a}{2})^2 \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$

7.2 Exponential distribution

Idea: "waiting time until next"

Remark: The exponential distribution plays an important role for the description of life-times. For instance, it is used to determine the probability that the lifetime of a component part or the duration of a phone call exceeds a certain time $T > 0$. Furthermore, it is applied to describe the time between the arrivals of customers at a counter or in a shop.

Let $\lambda > 0$. A random variable X with pdf

$$X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda) \Rightarrow f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-x\lambda}, \quad x > 0$$

Remark: $F_x = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(x) dx = 1 - e^{-x\lambda}$ if $x > 0$

1. **Expectation:** $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$
2. **Variance:** $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$

This distribution is **memoryless**, i.e. $\mathbb{P}(X > s+t | X > s) = \mathbb{P}(X > t)$ when $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$, $s, t > 0$

7.3 Gamma distribution

Idea: "Make exponential distribution more flexible"

Euler's gamma function is a mapping from $(0, \infty)$ to \mathbb{R} defined by

$$\Gamma(a) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{a-1} \cdot e^{-t} dt$$

Proposition 7.1

1. if $a > 0$, then $\Gamma(a + 1) = a\Gamma(a)$
2. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ follows $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$. In particular, $\Gamma(1) = \Gamma(2) = 1$ and $\Gamma(3) = 2$.

Given $\alpha, \beta > 0$, a random variable $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$ if

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} \cdot x^{\alpha-1} \cdot e^{-x/\beta} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note: the exponential distribution with parameter λ is the $\Gamma(1, \lambda)$ distribution.

1. **Expectation:**

$$\mathbb{E}(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + 1)\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha+1}} = \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$$

2. **Variance:** $\text{Var}(X) = \alpha/\beta^2$

7.4 Normal (or Gaussian) distribution

This section is devoted to the most important probability measure, the normal distribution. The idea is the "universal approximation for averages".

The normal distribution has a bell-shape density function and is used in the sciences to represent real-valued random variables that are assumed to be additively produced by many small effects.

Definition 7.2 The probability measure generated by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

is called normal distribution with expected value μ , and standard deviation σ . It is denoted by $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, that is, for all $a < b$

$$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)([a, b]) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \int_a^b e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx$$

Definition 7.3 The probability measure $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ is called standard normal distribution. It is given by

$$\mathcal{N}(0, 1)([a, b]) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_a^b e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx$$

Proposition 7.4 if $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and $Y = aX + b$ with $a \neq 0$, then $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$

Remark: if $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

8 Random Vectors

Definition 8.1 An 2-dimensional random vector is a function from a sample space Ω into \mathbb{R}^2 .

Definition 8.2 If (X, Y) is a discrete random vector, the function

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = \mathbb{P}((X, Y) = (x, y))$$

is called the **joint probability mass function** of (X, Y)

Key property: $A \in \mathbb{R}^2$, then $\mathbb{P}((X, Y) \in A) = \sum_{(X,Y) \in A} f_{X,Y}(x, y)$

Definition 8.3 A random vector (X, Y) is continuous if there exists a function $f_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ such that

$$\mathbb{P}((X, Y) \in A) = \iint_A f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy$$

and its called the **joint pdf** of (X, Y)

Definition 8.4 The joint cumulative distribution of the random vector (X, Y) is

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$$

Note: in the continuous case, we have for continuous $f_{X,Y}$:

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F(x, y)$$

Definition 8.5 Let X be a continuous random variable and Y be a discrete random variable. Then, a function $f_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ is called joint probability density function if

$$\mathbb{P}((X, Y) \in A) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \sum_{y: (x,y) \in A} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx$$

Definition 8.6 marginal pmf Let $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ be a pmf for a random vector (X, Y) , then

$$f_X(x, y) = \sum_y f_{X,Y}(x, y)$$

$$f_Y(x, y) = \sum_x f_{X,Y}(X, Y)$$

are the marginal pmf respect to x and y respectively.

Definition 8.7 marginal pdf Let $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ be a pdf for a random vector (X, Y) , then

$$f_X(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy$$

$$f_Y(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(X, Y) dx$$

are the marginal pdf respect to x and y respectively.

8.1 Conditional distribution & independence

Definition 8.8 conditional pmf Let (X, Y) be a discrete random vector with joint pmf $f_{X,Y}$ and marginals f_X and f_Y . The **conditional pmf** of X given Y is the function

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x|Y = y) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = y)}$$

defined for all y such that $f_Y(y) \neq 0$

Definition 8.9 Conditional pdf Let (X, Y) be continuous random variables with pdf $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$, then

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}$$

is the conditional pdf of X given Y .

Remark: this definition holds also in the mixed case, i.e X continuous and Y discrete.

Definition 8.10 Two random variables X, Y are independent if

$$f_{X,Y} = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y)$$

both for discrete and continuous.

Proposition 8.11 Factorization criterion Let two function $g, h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ such that

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = g(x) \cdot h(y)$$

then X, Y are independent and

$$f_X(x) = \frac{g(x)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(s) ds} \quad f_Y(y) = \frac{h(y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) dt}$$

Proposition 8.12 Let X, Y be independent random variables and $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the events $\{X \in A\}, \{Y \in B\}$ are independent, i.e

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A, Y \in B) = \mathbb{P}(X \in A)\mathbb{P}(Y \in B)$$

Remark: the converse of this proposition holds too.

8.2 Expected value and variance

Theorem 8.13 Let (X, Y) be random vector and and $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X, Y)] = \begin{cases} \sum_x \sum_y g(x, y) \cdot f_{X,Y}(x, y) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) \cdot f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy & \text{if } X \text{ has pdf } f_X \end{cases}$$

Theorem 8.14 Linearity & Monotonicity Let (X, Y) be a random vector, then

1. let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\mathbb{E}(aX + bY) = a\mathbb{E}(X) + b\mathbb{E}(Y)$
2. if $\mathbb{P}(X \geq Y) = 1$, then $\mathbb{E}(X) \geq \mathbb{E}(Y)$

Proposition 8.15 *If X and Y are independent, then for any g and h we have*

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)h(Y)) = \mathbb{E}(g(X))\mathbb{E}(h(Y))$$

in particular $\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$ and $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$

Definition 8.16 *If (X, Y) is a random vector, then*

$$\mathbb{E}(X|Y = y) = \begin{cases} \sum_x x \cdot f_{X|Y}(x|y) & X \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx & X \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

is the conditional expectation of X given that $Y = y$

Note: $\text{Var}(X|Y = y) = \mathbb{E}(X^2|Y = y) - (\mathbb{E}(X|Y = y))^2$

8.3 Transformation

Theorem 8.17 *Let X, Y be independent and $U = g_1(X), V = g_2(Y)$ for some $g_1, g_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then U, V are independent*

Theorem 8.18 pmf *Let (X_1, X_2) be a random vector and $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ and set $(Y_1, Y_2) = g(X_1, X_2)$. Then,*

$$f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \sum_{(x_1, x_2): g(x_1, x_2) = (y_1, y_2)} f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2)$$

Remark: Same works if $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Theorem 8.19 *if $X_1 \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda_1)$ and $X_2 \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda_2)$ are independent, then $X_1 + X_2 \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$*

Theorem 8.20 pdf of $Y = g(X)$ *Let (X_1, X_2) be continuous random vector and g be differentiable with inverse $h(y) = g^{-1}(y)$. Then, for $(Y_1, Y_2) = g(X_1, X_2)$ we have*

$$f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = f_{X_1, X_2}(h(y_1, y_2)) \cdot |J(y_1, y_2)|$$

where

$$J(y_1, y_2) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y_2} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

8.4 Covariance and Correlation

Definition 8.21 *Let X, Y be random variables. Set $\mu_x = \mathbb{E}(X)$ and $\mu_y = \mathbb{E}(Y)$. Then,*

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)]$$

*is the **covariance** of X and Y .*

Instead, set σ_X and σ_Y be the standard deviation of X, Y respectively. Then,

$$\text{Corr}(X, Y) = \rho_{X, Y} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

*is the **correlation** between X and Y*

Theorem 8.22 1. $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$

2. $\text{Cov}(X, X) = \text{Var}(X)$

3. $\rho_{X,X} = 1$

4. $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}(XY) - \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$

5. X, Y independent $\rightarrow \text{Cov}(X, Y) = \rho_{X,Y} = 0$

Lemma 8.23 For any random variable

$$\mathbb{P}(X = 0) = 1 \Leftrightarrow \mathbb{E}(X^2) = 0$$

Theorem 8.24 Covariance properties

1. $\text{Cov}(aX + bY, Z) = a \text{Cov}(X, Z) + b \text{Cov}(Y, Z)$

2. if X or Y constant, then $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$

3. $\|\text{Cov}(X, Y)\| \leq \sigma_X \sigma_Y \rightarrow \text{Cov}(X, Y) \in [-1, 1]$

4. Assume $\sigma_X, \sigma_Y > 0$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(X, Y) = \sigma_X \sigma_Y &\Leftrightarrow X = aY + b \text{ for some } a > 0, b \in \mathbb{R} \\ \text{Cov}(X, Y) = -\sigma_X \sigma_Y &\Leftrightarrow X = aY + b \text{ for some } a < 0, b \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

Corollary 8.25 Let $\|\rho_{X,Y}\| \leq 1$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_{X,Y} = 1 &\Leftrightarrow Y = aX + b, \quad a > 0 \text{ "perfect correlation"} \\ \rho_{X,Y} = -1 &\Leftrightarrow Y = aX + b, \quad a < 0 \text{ "perfect anti-correlation"} \end{aligned}$$

Corollary 8.26 1. $\text{Cov}\left(\sum_{i \leq m} X_i, \sum_{j \leq n} Y_j\right) = \sum_{i \leq m} \sum_{j \leq n} \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j)$

2. $\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i \leq n} X_i\right) = \sum_{i \leq n} \text{Var}(X_i) + 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$

3. If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent, then $\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i \leq n} X_i\right) = \sum_{i \leq n} \text{Var}(X_i)$

9 Moment generating function

Definition 9.1 The moment generating function of a random variable X is the function

$$M_x(t) = \mathbb{E}(e^{tX}) := \begin{cases} \sum e^{tX} f_X(x) & X \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tX} f_X(x) & X \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

provided that the sum/integral converges for all t in an interval of the form $(-h, h)$, $h > 0$.

Proposition 9.2 Linearity Let X a random variable, and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$M_{aX+b}(t) = e^{bt} M_X(at)$$

Theorem 9.3 *If X, Y are such that $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$ for all t in some neighborhood of 0, then $F_X = F_Y$ (that is, X and Y have the same distribution).*

Proposition 9.4 *If X and Y are independent, then*

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t)M_Y(t) \quad \text{for all } t \geq 0.$$

10 The bivariate normal distribution

Definition 10.1 *Let (X, Y) be a random vector. We say that (X, Y) is **bivariate normal** with parameters $\mu_X, \mu_Y \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma_X, \sigma_Y > 0$ and $\rho \in (-1, 1)$ if it has joint pdf*

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_X\sigma_Y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\left(\frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y} \right)^2 - 2\rho \frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X} \frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y} \right) \right\}$$

we write: $(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{N}((\mu_X, \mu_Y), \sigma_X^2, \sigma_Y^2, \rho)$

Lemma 10.2 Existence *Let $Z_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, $Z_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ be independent. Set*

$$\begin{aligned} U &:= \sigma_1 Z_1 + \mu_1 \\ V &:= \rho\sigma_2 Z_1 + \sqrt{1-\rho^2}\sigma_2 Z_2 + \mu_2 \end{aligned}$$

then

$$(U, V) \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Proposition 10.3 *If $(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_X, \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2, \sigma_Y^2, \rho)$, then*

$$X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2), \quad Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2), \quad \rho_{X,Y} = \rho.$$

Corollary 10.4 *If $(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_X, \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2, \sigma_Y^2, \rho)$, then*

$$aX + bY \sim \mathcal{N}(a\mu_X + b\mu_Y, a^2\sigma_X^2 + b^2\sigma_Y^2 + 2ab\rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y).$$

11 Higher dimensions

Definition 11.1 Random vector *An n -dimensional random vector is a function from a sample space Ω into \mathbb{R}^n .*

Definition 11.2 (Joint pmf) *If (X_1, \dots, X_n) is a discrete random vector, the function*

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \mathbb{P}((X_1, \dots, X_n) = (x_1, \dots, x_n))$$

is called the joint probability mass function (pmf) of (X_1, \dots, X_n) (sometimes we omit the word "joint" and simply say that f_{X_1, \dots, X_n} is the pmf of the random vector).

Remark: $\mathbb{P}((X_1, \dots, X_n) \in A) = \sum_{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in A} f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

Definition 11.3 Joint pdf A random vector (X_1, \dots, X_n) is continuous if there exists a function f_{X_1, \dots, X_n} such that

$$\mathbb{P}((X_1, \dots, X_n) \in A) = \int \cdots \int_A f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_n$$

f_{X_1, \dots, X_n} is called the joint probability density function (pdf) of (X_1, \dots, X_n) .

Definition 11.4 Joint cdf The joint cumulative distribution function (cdf) of the random vector (X_1, \dots, X_n) is

$$F_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1, \dots, X_n \leq x_n)$$

In the continuous case, we have:

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\partial^n F_{X_1, \dots, X_n}}{\partial x_1 \cdots \partial x_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

Definition 11.5 Expectation If (X_1, \dots, X_n) is a random vector and $g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X_1, \dots, X_n)) = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x_1, \dots, x_n) f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_n & \text{in the continuous case} \\ \sum_{x_1} \cdots \sum_{x_n} g(x_1, \dots, x_n) f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) & \text{in the discrete case} \end{cases}$$

Definition 11.6 Conditional pmf/pdf Let (X_1, \dots, X_n) be a continuous/discrete random vector. The conditional pmf/pdf of (X_1, \dots, X_m) given (X_{m+1}, \dots, X_n) is

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_m | (X_{m+1}, \dots, X_n)}(x_1, \dots, x_m | x_{m+1}, \dots, x_n) = \frac{f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{f_{X_{m+1}, \dots, X_n}(x_{m+1}, \dots, x_n)}$$

defined for all x_1, \dots, x_m and for all x_{m+1}, \dots, x_n such that $f_{X_{m+1}, \dots, X_n}(x_{m+1}, \dots, x_n) > 0$.

Definition 11.7 Independence The random variables X_1, \dots, X_n are independent if

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_{X_1}(x_1) \cdots f_{X_n}(x_n)$$

(both for discrete and continuous).

Definition 11.8 Joint mgf The joint mgf of a random vector (X_1, \dots, X_n) is the function $M_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(t_1, \dots, t_n) = \mathbb{E}(e^{t_1 X_1 + \cdots + t_n X_n})$. That is

$$M_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(t_1, \dots, t_n) = \begin{cases} \sum e^{t_1 X_1 + \cdots + t_n X_n} \cdot f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) & (X_1, \dots, X_n) \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{t_1 X_1 + \cdots + t_n X_n} \cdot f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_n & (X_1, \dots, X_n) \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

provided that the sum/integral converges in an interval of the form $(-h, h)^n$ $h > 0$

12 Statistic

Definition 12.1 *Random Sample* A random sample of size n is a sequence X_1, \dots, X_n of independent random variables all with the same pdf/pmf, say $f(x)$. We thus have

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq n} f_{X_i}(x_i)$$

we say that f is the **population pdf/pmf**

Remark:

1. There is an infinite population of some entities
2. Each entity has some attribute
3. f describes attribute distribution over the population
4. We select n individuals and record their attributes to obtain X_1, \dots, X_n

Definition 12.2 *Parameter* A parameter is a constant that defines the population pmf/pdf $f(x)$

Definition 12.3 *Statistic* A statistic is a function $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of a random sample.

$$Y = T(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

Definition 12.4 A statistic Y is a unbiased estimator for the parameter θ $\mathbb{E}(Y) = \theta$

Definition 12.5

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sample mean} : \quad \bar{X}_n &= \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \\ \text{sample variance} : \quad S_n^2 &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i \leq n} (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 12.6

$$S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i \leq n} X_i^2 - \frac{n}{n-1} \bar{X}_n^2$$

Theorem 12.7 *Unbiasedness of sample mean variance* Let X_1, \dots, X_n be independent and identically distributed with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then,

1. $\mathbb{E}(\bar{X}_n) = \mu$
2. $\mathbb{E}(S_n^2) = \sigma^2$

12.1 Convergence concepts

The idea is how large should n be such that \bar{X}_n approximates μ well?

Definition 12.8 A sequence of X_1, X_2, \dots of random variables converges in probability to a constant $c \in \mathbb{R}$ if $\forall \epsilon > 0$:

$$\mathbb{P}(|X_n - c| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$$

we write $X_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\mathbb{P}} c$

Definition 12.9 Let X_1, \dots, X_n be a random sample of pmf/pdf with parameter θ . We say that Y_n is **consistent estimator** of θ if

$$Y_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\mathbb{P}} \theta$$

Theorem 12.10 Weak Law of Large Numbers Let X_1, X_2, \dots independent and identically distributed with $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ then

$$\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow[\mathbb{P}]{\rightarrow} \mu \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon) = 0$$

Definition 12.11 converges in distribution A sequence of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots converges in distribution to a random variable X if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = F_X(x)$$

for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ at which $F_X(x)$ is continuous. We denote this by

$$X_n \xrightarrow[d]{n \rightarrow \infty} X$$

Lemma 12.12 If X is continuous and $X_n \xrightarrow[d]{n \rightarrow \infty} X$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(X_n = x) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} 0$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$

Proposition 12.13 If X is continuous and $X_n \xrightarrow[d]{n \rightarrow \infty} X$, then for every interval $I \subset \mathbb{R}$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(X_n \in I) = \mathbb{P}(X \in I)$$

Theorem 12.14 Central Limit Theorem Let X_1, X_2, \dots be independent and identically distributed with mean μ and variance σ^2 (both finite). Then,

$$\sqrt{n} \cdot \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \xrightarrow[d]{n \rightarrow \infty} Z, \quad \text{where } Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

Remarks:

$$\sqrt{n} \cdot \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mu n}{\sigma \sqrt{n}}$$

Theorem 12.15 Assume that X_1, X_2, \dots and X are such that

$$M_{X_n}(t) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} M_X(t)$$

or all t in a neighborhood of 0. Then, $X_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{d} X$

Theorem 12.16

$$\mathbb{E}(X^n) = \left. \frac{d^n}{dt^n} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0}$$

Theorem 12.17 Normal approximation to binomial When n is large and p is not too close to 0 or 1, we have the approximation

$$X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p) \approx Y \sim \mathcal{N}(np, np(1-p))$$

where

$$\mathbb{P}(X \leq b) \approx \int_{-\infty}^{b+\frac{1}{2}} f_Y(y) dy = F_Y\left(b + \frac{1}{2}\right), \quad \mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \approx \int_{a-\frac{1}{2}}^{\infty} f_Y(y) dy = 1 - F_Y\left(a - \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

this approximation holds if $n \geq 15$, $np \geq 5$ and $n(1-p) \geq 5$.

Theorem 12.18 Chebyshev Inequality Let X an random variable,

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mathbb{E}(X)| > x) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{x^2}, \quad x > 0$$

13 Random Walk

Definition 13.1 X_1, X_2, \dots independent random variables with values in $\{-1, 1\}$ set $p := \mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1)$, $q := \mathbb{P}(X_1 = -1)$ and set $S_0 \geq 0$. Then, the sequence

$$S_n := S_0 + X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

is called *simple random walk*

Theorem 13.2 pmf of S_n Suppose that $n+k$ is even. Then,

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n = S_0 + k) = \binom{n}{\frac{n+k}{2}} p^{\frac{n+k}{2}} q^{\frac{n-k}{2}}$$

Definition 13.3 Passage times Let $\{S_n\}_{n \geq 0}$ be a simple random walk with $S_0 = i$. Then,

$$T_{i,k} := \min\{n \geq 1 : S_n = k\}$$

is the passage time from i to k

Theorem 13.4 Finiteness criterion

$$\mathbb{P}(T < \infty) = \begin{cases} 1 & p \geq q \\ \frac{p}{q} & p < q \end{cases}$$

Theorem 13.5 *Finite expected passage time* If $p > q$, then $\mathbb{E}[T] < \infty$.

Theorem 13.6 *Markov inequality* Let $a > 0$ and Y be any non-negative random variable. Then,

$$\mathbb{P}(Y \geq a) \leq \frac{1}{a}\mathbb{E}(Y)$$

Theorem 13.7 *pmf of $T_{0,b}$* Let $(S_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be simple random walk with $S_0 = 0$. Then, for $b > 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}(T_{0,b} = n) = \frac{b}{n}\mathbb{P}(S_n = b)$$

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